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Course of Study
IN
Mediaeval and Modern History
FOR
HIGH SCHOOLS
OF THE
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Mediaeval and Modern History

UPPER SCHOOL

Having studied Ancient and British and Canadian History in the Lower and the Middle School, the pupils of the Upper School now take a survey of the whole range of the Mediaeval and Modern History of Europe. The ground covered is extensive, and wise and discriminating guidance on the part of the teacher is necessary to fix the thoughts of the students on what is salient. The person or institution emphasized should have some vital place in the development of society. In this connection it should be kept in mind that it is England which has played the greatest part in the history of modern political life. She was the pioneer in that striking development of modern times, representative government. Every state that now possesses parliamentary institutions has been her imitator.

The old-fashioned practice of committing to memory the list of the Kings of England with the chief dates of their reigns is eminently wise; only when some such outline is fixed indelibly in the mind have we a basis for the accurate grouping of historical events. If to such a list could be added the Kings of France, and the dates of the important treaties, especially those which have defined international boundaries in Europe, the pupil would be well equipped for placing events in their proper relations in time. Their relations in respect to place are hardly less vital; for an understanding of the geography of a country is indispensable to the proper study of its history. The character of a people is profoundly influenced by the climate in which they live, the fertility of their soil, and their situation, whether maritime or inland. The teacher should put clearly and simply before his classes the main geographical features of Europe and the British Isles, noting especially the more important mountain ranges and river valleys, and giving some examples of their bearing upon the history to be studied.

1. MEDIAEVAL HISTORY

The Roman Empire

The growth and extent of the Empire, and the mode of Government, the life of its citizens and subjects, and the causes of decline are all subjects permitting of broad and rapid treatment. The teacher who aims to develop any of them more thoroughly should describe Britain as a Roman province.

[In the treatment of the Roman occupation of Britain, slides are especially helpful. Classified catalogues with prices can be obtained from William Rau, Chestnut and 13th Streets, Philadelphia; Levy et fils, 46 Rue Letellier, Paris; George Philip and Son, 32 Fleet Street, London, England; J. P. Gibson, Hexham, England.]

Christianity within the Empire

The rise of Christianity within the Empire, its relations with the Government, and the life of Jerome or of Augustine as illustrating the Christian attitude toward Roman society during its decline, should be discussed briefly.

The Barbarian Invasions

After inquiring whether the invasions were a new or alarming phenomenon, the teacher should point out on a map the chief lines of attack, and should mention the most conspicuous names and dates. The habits and customs of the Germans he can describe to the best advantage when dealing with the Angles, Jutes, and Saxons. He should picture their life in peace and war, the character of their invasion of Britain, the destruction of Romano-British civilization. He should also contrast their settlement in Britain with that of the other German peoples in the more thoroughly Roman provinces of the Empire.

Europe after the Invasions

The attempt of Theodoric the Goth to create a peaceful barbarian kingdom in Italy should be discussed briefly. The reign of Justinian marks the survival in the East of the Roman Empire, now become an Eastern despotism, based on Roman law, on the Roman type of bureaucracy and army, and on Greek trade and finance. The personality of Justinian is an elusive one, and makes little or no appeal to young students. The Eastern situation is quite beyond them; hence the subject should be touched upon very lightly, and should give place at once to the two topics below.

The Progress of Christianity

The Bishop of Rome; his position in the Church and in Italy; his relation to the Empire and to foreign powers. The life of Gregory the Great should be studied carefully in this connection. He grew up among the ruins of Imperial Rome, abandoned the Imperial service for the service of the Church, and by his conduct of affairs in Italy, his government of the Church, his missionary efforts, and his theological writings, extended and developed the influence of the ecclesiastical authority. By this time we see the importance of Monasticism now upheld as the ideal form of Christian life. Western Monasticism adopted gradually the Rule of Saint Benedict, which might well be studied in the class. This simple and practical document remained for centuries the basis of monastic life. It will be found in *A Source Book of Mediæval History*, edited by Thatcher and McNeal (Scribner).

The Franks

Among the important conquests of the Church was that of the Franks. They mastered Gaul, and the adoption of orthodox Christianity by their leader, Clovis, made them the allies of the Church. Their royal house, the Merovingian line, declined as civilization impaired its native vigour, and the government passed to the Carlovingian family which came from the eastern part of the Frankish kingdom, still largely German. The Carlovingians took the crown, completed the alliance with the Church by defending it in Italy, and created the Holy Roman Empire.

The Empire of Charles the Great

Charles the Great should be made a very real figure; his wars, court, interest in building and education, his friends, Alcuin, Eginhard, his personal conduct of the administration, his religious and political aims, are all interesting.

The Empire was threatened and destroyed by such forces as:

(1) Racial disunion which, in the end, became national and broke up Charles's Empire into separate divisions, Italy, France, Germany, etc.

(2) Barbarian invasions, when Saracens, Huns, and Vikings attacked different parts of the Empire.

Feudalism also may be described as a destructive force; for it laid stress on local authority, in contrast with the centralizing tendencies of the Empire. A knowledge of Feudalism is indispensable and can best be obtained by considering the institution on its personal side. The teacher should describe a feudal estate and give an account of the relations between lord and vassal and among vassals themselves. No technical terms should be introduced until the picture is clearly grasped. Something should be said as to the civilization which Feudalism produced and the poetry and romance of life in the feudal castle.

These topics and also those which have gone before, such as Monasticism and the Influence of Christianity can be illustrated admirably from English History. English society yielded to feudal influences. Tribal divisions among the invaders delayed national growth. Later, the Viking attacks rendered national union impossible, and made the efforts of Alfred the Great, Edgar and Dunstan, and Canute ineffective to build up one great State, until, at least, England was mastered by William the Conqueror.

The State

No attempt should be made to follow carefully the political history of Europe, but the development of institutions may easily be traced in England after 1066. The Norman Kings soon joined with the English people against the Norman barons, and made the alliance firm and lasting by means of a civil service and a judiciary which reached out from the royal court to the local assemblies. The anarchy of the reign of Stephen showed what a menace the feudal baronage might have become had not Henry II completed its overthrow. In Richard's absence the machinery of government was improved. But when there was danger that John would convert the strong centralized monarchy into tyranny, all classes united to oppose him. The struggle continued during the greater part of the reign of Henry III and ended only when Edward I summoned the nation to his model Parliament and prepared for the establishment of the maxim "what touches all should be approved by all," as a first principle of the British Constitution. It should be noted by way of comparison that, while in France the king's crushed feudalism as in England, they did not foster the local institutions of the people or submit to a Great Charter; the reign and career of Louis IX bring out the real character of the French monarchy, and show why France ever grew more, while England grew less, despotic. In Germany, on the other hand, the feudal barons destroyed the monarchy, because the German kings tried to keep alive the tradition of the Roman Empire, and made themselves so weak by spending time and energy in Italy that at home the barons checked their authority. The German princes, who ruled Italy as Emperors, were not strong enough to control that country either, and Italy, like Germany, was broken up into many states. The Normans occupied the south, feudalism flourished toward the north, and the free cities developed in wealth and political independence. The most serious opposition to the Emperors came, however, from the Pope, who held lands in central Italy and ruled the Western Church.

The Church

Whatever view we may take of the part of the Church in modern life, it remains true that it was the most imposing institution in mediæval society. With its highly developed organization it influenced every department of life. It had its lands, which strong kings, like William the Conqueror and Henry I, tried to control by reserving the power to appoint to office in the Church. Under Gregory VII, the Church resisted the kings. The Investiture struggle was the result, and its character can best be seen in the career of Anselm. The Church had its *courts*, which Henry II sought to make subject to the Royal system of justice; he was opposed by Thomas à Becket. It possessed strongholds everywhere in the *monasteries*, the inmates of which took charge of education, copied and thus preserved manuscripts, and tilled the soil. Their character and influence can be shown most clearly from the life of Bernard of Clairvaux. To meet the needs of the people especially in the new towns, the Church supported the movement of the *Friars*, inaugurated by Francis of Assisi and Dominic. It sent these "poor preachers" everywhere, but especially into the *Universities*, which, largely under its influence, had risen in Paris, Oxford, and other centres during the twelfth century. At first great crowds of students had gathered merely to hear famous teachers, but they soon followed settled courses, such as medicine at Salerno, law at Bologna, and worked under common regulations and customs. The Church, too, commanded other forces, particularly that of religious enthusiasm, as expressed in the Crusades. For an understanding of the Crusades, it is necessary to review the origin and growth of Islam and the situation in the East under its sway. The Crusaders held Jerusalem only for a time; but the movement promoted trade, brought in eastern manners and ideas, and broadened the outlook of Western men. With the command of these forces the Church, under leaders such as Gregory VII and Innocent III, asserted and finally established its supremacy over the Holy Roman Empire. Its victory marked the climax in the political history of the Middle Ages.

Mediæval Life

The above topics suggest the lines which the teacher's study and knowledge of the period should follow. He can make these of real value and interest for his pupils by portraying vividly some of the leading figures and outward aspects of mediæval life. Biography makes a strong and constant appeal to young students. In such characters as those of Charles the Great, Anselm, Bernard of Clairvaux, Francis of Assisi, of many of the Kings of England, and of Louis IX of France, the teacher commands ample material with which to stimulate historical imagination. He can find in all good text-books and in the form of slides and photographs illustrations of mediæval castles, churches and towns. It is an easy matter to hold the interest and improve the taste by tracing with the aid of views the development of architecture. This is the most important art of the Middle Ages, and modern society has much to learn from the study of its masterpieces.

It is not necessary to give here an extended list of books which teachers might consult, for bibliographies are to be found in the text book, and in Robinson's *Readings on European History*. Teachers should be reminded, however, that historical novels, and such stories as *Puck o' Pook's Hill* and *Rewards and Fairies* by Kipling are of the highest value. They will also meet with stimulating suggestions in Fletcher's *Introductory History of England*, but, above all else, they should be understood as a phase of Renaissance thought—Marco Polo's journeys, and convenient form in series like "Everyman's Library" and "English History from Contemporary Sources."

2. MODERN HISTORY

Modern History is more complex than Mediæval History. During its course there have developed a number of great nations each with its own type of life, each pursuing its own ideals. In the transition to modern times we find that some mediæval institutions and ideas have almost wholly disappeared. We have no longer feudalism or crusades; the unity of the mediæval Church has been broken by the Protestant revolt; the rights of birth and rank which seemed so natural to the mediæval mind have been assailed in the struggles of such revolutions as that in France. The result is a changed world, and it is the chief function of the teacher of the history of this period to explain how the changes have come about. Only the great events and the great leaders can be followed.

The Growth of National Spirit

The growth of national spirit is seen as early as in the Hundred Years' War, when the burning patriotism of the French made it impossible to force upon them a foreign king. The teacher can use effectively the lives of Edward the Black Prince, Henry V, and Joan of Arc. To this day France treasures the memory of Joan as one of the first to appeal effectively to French nationality.

This national movement matures only slowly into the modern system of great states, sharply divided from each other by national feeling and under strong centralized governments. The impelling force in these changes is summed up in the term—

The Renaissance

It is most important to get a clear meaning of this term. It indicates more than anything else a state of mind which leads men to think for themselves. This state of mind came to the age as it comes to the maturing individual and causes him to criticize, to explore, to break away from the traditions of the immediate past, to think and act for himself. No specific date can be given for such a movement. We find it in the thirteenth century, though its culmination is not reached until towards the end of the fifteenth. It has many aspects.

(1) *The Revival of Classical Learning.* This revival finds its chief home naturally in Italy, where Florence becomes the "Mediæval Athens." The figure of Dante, mediæval in his religious thought, but half modern in his feeling for nature and in his use of Italian, the tongue of the common people, stands at the beginning of the period. Petrarch, his younger contemporary, is modern in outlook. These two men ought to be made real. Both love ancient learning, but they are different types. Only a few Renaissance leaders should be considered: Lorenzo de Medici, Savonarola as opposing him, Pope Leo X, and Erasmus; in England More and Colet, both beautiful characters.

(2) *The Fine Arts in the Renaissance.* This is a subject so large that it may well become confusing. At most only a few great names should be discussed—Giotto at the beginning; then much later Leonardo da Vinci, Michael Angelo, Raphael, and Titian.

Photographs of the great works of art are now cheap, and by spending a small sum each year an excellent collection of reproductions could be made. Framed and hung on the walls of the school rooms they would produce an excellent effect in educating the eye and the taste of pupils.

(3) *The Revolt from the Authority of the Church.* There had long been mutterings by such men, for instance, as Wycliffe and Hus. At last Luther ap-

pears. The movement which he led is German, springing largely from the growth of the national spirit. It will be best understood by seeing vividly the character and aims of this one man, Luther. To see him the pupils must see those opposed to him,—Pope Leo X, the Emperor Charles V, Erasmus, even the English Henry VIII.

(4) *The Spirit of Discovery.* The story of the discovery of America can best be told in connection with Canadian History, but the whole subject of discovery should be understood as a phase of Renaissance thought—Marco Polo's journeys, the attempt to reach India by going round Africa, and Asia by crossing the Atlantic. The reason for Spain's leading in this work should be made clear: the recent union of Castile and Aragon had made her strong enough to take such leadership and by the overthrow of the Moorish power she had ended a long conflict. These topics especially interest students in the New World; maps should be freely used.

(5) *A new Independence in Political Thought.* This is probably the most far-reaching and permanent result of the Renaissance. In England the change proceeds with striking regularity. Henry VII and Henry VIII are practically despots: Parliament does their bidding. But the new spirit shows itself under Elizabeth in delight in adventure (Drake, Hawkins), and in literary and scientific activity (Shakespeare, Bacon). Finally, when a Stuart and half foreign King succeeds, the nation asserts its liberties. Then we have the succession of leaders, Eliot, Hampden, Pym, Oliver Cromwell, who attack vehemently religious and political despotism. At the same time a similar struggle is found on the Continent. The Church, wounded deeply by the assault of Luther, rallies her forces. Ignatius Loyola organizes the Society of Jesus; the Council of Trent is held, largely under Jesuit leadership. The Church is soon strong enough to carry on aggressive war in regions where she had at first lost heavily. In France the bitterness of the struggle is seen in the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, while the Church's ultimate triumph is evident in the renunciation of Protestantism by its leader Henry IV, who, however, concedes toleration to Protestants in the Edict of Nantes. Charles V and Philip II seek to destroy Protestantism in the Netherlands. The characters of both should be clearly understood, and over against Philip should be put the figure of William of Orange (the Silent) the leader of Dutch Protestantism, and the real founder of the Dutch Republic. The causes of the decline of Spain should be explained. The conflict widens and deepens. The Church aims to recover lost ground in Germany, and the Thirty Years' War breaks out. To follow the details of the war in a school class would be useless. Let only the issue be understood. Catholic Austria aims to dominate Germany, and not merely Protestant Germany but Catholic France joins in the struggle to prevent it.

The Age of Louis XIV

The Thirty Years' War seemed to show that no single state, no single type of religious thought, could be dominant in Europe and that attempts to effect unity by coercion would fail. But it was left for France to make a further supreme effort for domination. Here it is important to show what ambitions to sway Europe France matured, over against a Germany desolated and nearly ruined by the Thirty Years' War, and the student will see that the issue is not yet dead if he remembers the present relations of France and Germany. To follow the details of the wars of Louis XIV would be a waste of time with a school class; but his personality, his court, his ambitions can be made clear. So also can his religious policy. His revocation of the Edict of Nantes and his resolution to have

but one type of religion in France reveals the passion for uniformity that modern states have been forced to abandon. The futility of his aim to master Europe is seen in—

The Rise of the new Nations, Prussia and Russia.

The pomp-loving Frederick I, the first king of Prussia, his eccentric son Frederick William I, and his brilliant grandson Frederick II, (the Great) lend themselves to interesting treatment, and abundant material will be found in Carlyle's *Frederick the Great*. An equally interesting figure is Peter the Great, of Russia, with his efforts to bring a hitherto Oriental state into touch with Western Europe. But, interesting as they are, these phases of European history can be touched upon only lightly.

Expansion of Great Britain

This phrase best sums up the final result of the world-wide struggle of Britain with Spain, with Holland, and with France. Its climax is in the Seven Years' War. Again, to follow such a struggle in detail would be vain; but the pupil can be made to see clearly Frederick the Great, Pitt, Wolfe, Montcalm, Clive and George III, determined to be master and to end the war. The war itself has far-reaching consequences in bringing prominently to the front Prussia, the master-state of modern Germany, and in establishing Britain's superiority to France in both North America and India. From this war, indeed, may be dated the modern British Empire. True, Britain's triumph was short lived, but her disasters during the American Revolution should be passed over lightly for they are studied more fully in British History. The great crisis of European development soon came:

The French Revolution

This era is a life's study in itself. The most a teacher can hope to do is to make vivid some of the leading figures: Turgot, his plans to reform and his failure; Necker, with his weak policy; Mirabeau, Robespierre, Danton as leaders. The Fall of the Bastille, the September massacres, the Terror and much else lend themselves to vivid treatment, but in each case the reasons for the event as well and the dramatic happening should be made plain. It should be clearly understood why the first republic was proclaimed in France, why the Terror seemed necessary, why Robespierre fell, why the Directory was established, and why, in the end, there issued a military dictatorship under—

Napoleon. Only a few chief things about Napoleon can be taught: The greatness of his genius: as a soldier, his ambition, his resolution to dominate Europe, the cause of his failure; as a civilian, his reforms and his influence in making government efficient.

With Napoleon's fall we have Europe once again working out the fuller results of modern as distinguished from mediæval thought. The principles so extravagantly asserted in France of the Revolution are still potent. National feeling becomes a passion and shows itself in remarkable movements for—

Unification. This movement is seen in Germany; in Italy; in the United States, by the overthrow of secession ideas in the Great Civil War; in the British Empire by the Federation first of Canada, then of Australia, and by the later Union of South Africa, and the present movement for closer imperial unity with governing states within the Empire.

Such great topics can only be touched upon. Throughout the course attention should be fixed merely on the chief figures and the salient movements.